Gender Discrimination and Job Satisfaction

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Abstract
This article defines the relationship between two factors and its impact by examining the effect of Gender discrimination in the workplace which influences the job performance and job satisfaction in individuals (i.e., hiring, promotion, salary, control/autonomy/influence, challenge, performance measures, feedback, in strumentality, stability/security). The data is collected through quantitative method. The sample of the study consisted of 500 employees working in different banks in Islamabad and Wahcatt (Pakistan) through the questionnaire, of which 300 were returned and processed. R was used to analyze the data, using independent T-Test, and excel, Correlation and Multi-regression analysis. There is a significant prove, gender discrimination has an influence on Job satisfaction and job performance and stability of individuals. From findings of the study, it is also depicted that male and female have significantly different level of job satisfaction.

Keywords; Gender discrimination, Job satisfaction/job Performance, Stability.

Unequal opportunities in work life are perceived as serious problem, not only because they have an impact on the income and social status of those who are excluded or subordinated in the labour market, but also because they undermine the social political system, lead to the waste of human resources and to underutilization of skills, knowledge and manpower, and prevent access to the advantages that different types of knowledge can bring globalized economy (Fridholm 2006; EC 2005).

The experimental data suggest that women on average are more sensitive to the gender of their co-player than men. If it is accepted that the magnitude of Gender discrimination in a population can be measured as the subjects’ average sensitivity to the gender signal, then this means that the women are more inclined to Gender discrimination than the men. The relative dominance of female to male discrimination is strongest subject among the subjects, where almost the whole discrimination effect can be attributed to the female group’s tendency to treat other females unfavorably. As pointed out before, economic excremental discrimination behavior is an unexplored field.

Job satisfaction of employees plays a vital role of organization performance both in developed and developing economy. Researcher found that employees who are satisfied with their job are preferred to stay with their employers. According to SHRM (Society for human resource management) survey report 2009, importance aspects of job satisfaction are job security, Benefits, compensation/pay, opportunity to use skills/ability, feeling safe in the work environment along with other individual job satisfaction aspect career development, employee’s relation with management and work environment. Employees job satisfaction is effected by both intrinsic variable related to personal growth and development that contribute to increase satisfaction while extrinsic factors are related to security of the work environment called hygiene factors, cause job dissatisfaction (Hertzberg et al., 1959; Ssesanga and Garett, 2005). Because various factors influence on job satisfaction so it has become indefinable and mythical concept (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Ssesanga and Garett, 2005). Employees feel satisfaction in those organization who use HPWS (higher
performance work system) by giving them opportunity to participate in decision making processes, improve their skills and knowledge, internal career opportunity and autonomy in work (Guest, 1999, 2004)

Direct and indirect experiences of gender-based mistreatment have most often been examined for women, in part because this type of mistreatment is more likely to be directed towards women than men (Hesson-McInnis & Fitzgerald, 1997), especially in male-dominated environments such as the academy (Grauerholz, 1996) and the law (Upton, Panter, Daye, Allen, & Wightman, 2012). However, more recently, a few studies have found that observed hostility toward women is related to lower job satisfaction and psychological well-being for both men and women (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004, 2007). Because of the negative impact of the different forms of gender-based mistreatment on women and men, it is important for the researchers to gain a better sense of the underlying reason for their harm.

Gender discrimination is unfair treatment in the employment setting in which individuals are placed at disadvantages compared to others because of their gender rather than their ability or skills (Dipboye & Halverson, 2004). Scholar draw distinctions between “formal” and “interpersonal” discrimination, with the formal variety entailing “discrimination in hiring, promotion, salary, access and resources distribution” (Hebl, Foster, Mannix, & Dovidio, 2002, p. 816). Formal discrimination involves behavioral activities that may be illegal according to Title VII of the Civil Right Act of 1964 (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 2008), so organizational policies and social norms often prohibits this conducts (Hebl et al., 2002; Mackie & Smith 1998; Singletary & Hebl, 2009).

Although there has been only limited study of gender discrimination and job satisfaction, the existing researches suggests that women, compared to men, will report more frequent or severe experience of formal gender discrimination, gender derogation, and perceived OSTW (Bond et al., 2004). However, researcher also suggests that the effects of the gender discrimination will be similar (but weaker) for men compared to women (Bond et al., 2004; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Although there is a sizable body of literature on the negative impact of gender discrimination on outcomes (at least for women), relatively little is known about why these relationships exist. In the present study, it is examined that gender discrimination relates to lower job satisfaction indirectly or negatively perceptions of the workplace climate.

Hiring

Gary Becker (1957) made the startling claim that increased competition in the product market would reduce or eliminate discrimination against women and minorities in the long run. This implies a positive relationship between the market power and employment discrimination: because discrimination is costly in the sense that discriminating employers forego profits in order to indulge their ‘taste for discrimination’, employers with market power will be able to practice discrimination to a greater extent that employers with little market power. The theory has dynamic implications in that changes in the relative employment and earnings of this discriminated groups will depend in the part on changes in market power. Focusing on women in particular, increased product market competition in an industry (or region) over time should reduce earnings and employment disparities between men and women, all else equal.

The recent narrowing of the gender earnings gap in an era of increased competition through international trade and deregulation might seem to offer supportive evidence of this theory. Since 1960, in fact, the gender wage ratio and the share imports in GDP have followed similar time trends, with both series remaining fairly constant between 1960 and 1980, and then increasing dramatically through the early 1990s. Despite this
suggestive evidence, however, few researchers analyzing the cause of the improvement in female relative wages and employment have focused on the links between trade and gender discrimination.

During the last decade, economists have attempted to estimate hiring discrimination against women in the labour market by means of correspondence experiments. Within these experiments, pairs of fictitious job applications, only differing by the gender of the candidate, are sent to real job openings. By means of standard probit regressions of the subsequent call-back from the employer on the gender of the candidate, discrimination is identified (Riach and Rich 2002). At the same time, as argued by Azmat and Petrongolo (2014) in their overview of experimental advances in the study of gender differences in the labour market “it should be stressed that existing […] correspondence evidence on gender discrimination is […] still open to this criticism” To fill the gap Carlsson et al. (2014) apply Neymark’s (2012) econometric framework to a number of already published correspondence studies among which one targeted at gender discrimination.

To see more clearly for the case of gender discrimination in hiring, assume that both the average observed and the average unobserved determinants of productivity are the same for male and female candidates for an unfilled vacancy, but that the variance of unobservable job-relevant characteristics is, at least in the perception of the employer, higher females than for males. In addition, suppose that the employer considers the observed determinants of productivity, inferred from the CV and the motivation letter, as relatively low compared to the job requirement. In that it is rational for the employer to invite the female and the male candidate, since it is more likely that the sum of observed and unobserved productivity is higher for female candidates. A correspondence test that detects discrimination against females could therefore underestimate the extent of discrimination against females.

**Promotion**

The general idea that there might be “feedback” from employers’ expectations to family members’ individuals’ behavior is well understood. However, the “feedback” mechanism must be such that employer expectations turn out to be exactly correct. But what does this imply for policy? Can and should this type of asymmetric equilibrium be countered by policy measures? What are the effects of various instruments? Does policy needs to be in place only temporarily until the economy is established in a new, symmetric equilibrium in which men and women are promoted according to the same rules? Or will economy revert to the old, asymmetric equilibrium as soon as the policies measures are lifted?

The main result of this study is that it is quite likely that anti-discrimination policy needs to be permanent. These restatethe findings that if the economy is initially in an asymmetric equilibrium, then there is (probably) no stable symmetric equilibrium. Policy can force the economy to an outcome that is not stable equilibrium, but as soon as policy in question is lifted, such situation cannot be up helped.

**Salary**

The gender wage gap in also unknown as “gender wage gap”, “the gender gap in earning” and male and female disparity” and this gender pay gap refers to the hourly earnings differences between male and female earnings after getting, education and experience, skills and tenure (Khoreva, 2011).

According to Blau and Kahn (2000) several factors lead to gender wage gap are human capital, marriage bar and glass ceiling. As often human capital women have less education and experience compared to men, in
the marriage bar after marriage women do not spend extra time in their jobs because home responsibilities and in glass ceiling women are hindered for progression in organization (Blaau and Kahnm 2000).

According to Lorber and Farrell, (1991, pp. 141) many writers believe that organizations discriminate women in shape of unequal pay and gender gap is one of major reasons of gender inequality in the organizations as women even have equal education and experience but are not equally paid. Moreover job segregation and stereotype attitude are also reasons behind the gender wage gap. Furthermore, reasons lead to gender pay inequality in the organizations are: human capital, marriage bar, job segregation, glass ceiling, stereotype attitudes and equal opportunity positions, but some researchers believes that women have more equalized in human capital (Fransen et al., 2012).

**Control/ autonomy/Influence**

While gender differences are normative and positive for both independent gender (Wood &Eagley, 2003) gender discrimination against females is not normative and is culturally constructed. Gender discrimination (GD) is not a natural fact that is simply derived from biological and sex differences. It is rather a complex social, historical, and cultural phenomenon that regulates, in critical way, social life and social institutions around male’s dominance and female’s subjugation. Gender discrimination (GD) (by family and / or by social institutions and cultures) is chronic identity trauma that includes prejudice and unfair disadvantageous treatment and / or negative perception based on a person’s female gender. It includes the differential disparity in status, power and prestige and may include the belief that a male is intrinsically superior, especially in the case of oppression of women by men.

Researchers suggested that GD is a risk factor for females and protective factors, and can potentially be risk factor as well, for males (Kira et al.,2012a). It was found that GD contributes to lower self-esteem, and associated higher internalizing disorders in females and, higher empowerment, or inflated self-esteem and associated with higher risk-taking behaviors and externalizing disorders (and authoritarianism) in males(Kira et al., 2012a; Rosenfield Lennon, & White, 2005; Kaufman, 2009). Gender discrimination as identify type III trauma for females is a systemic social-structural inter-gender trauma, comprises micro (e.g., insults and exclusions) as well as macro aggressions (e.g., gender based violence, trafficking). Feminist theorists (e.g., Enns, 2004; Kira et al., 2012) propose that traditional gender role socialization and experiences of external and internalized oppression negatively impacts the mental health and wellbeing of both genders. Several liberal, cultural, and radical feminist theories have been influential in articulating the various ways rigid gender role socialization and gender stereotypes promote devaluation of women, systemically enhances patriarchy, male domination and control over of women (Enns, 2004; Jaggar& Rothenberg, 1993; Worell& Remer, 2003).

Further, there are powerful pressure from dominant gender actors who have vested interest in maintaining a discriminatory status quo to minimizing or disregard the pressure of GD(e.g., Garcia, Schmitt, Branscombe, &Ellemers, 2010; Kaiser, 2007). Even some members of the same disadvantaged group, to cope with distress related to GD, disapproval an individual who claims or emphasizes GD (Garcia et al., 2010). Indeed many females especially in traditional cultures deny experiencing discrimination even in the face of objective indicators to the contrary (Crosby, 1984). A motivation to justify the unjust GD may lead individuals to endorse explanations that portray gender differences as stemming from deep, essential motive to view their social system as just, fair, and good and will engage in different conscious or unconscious strategies to justify the status quo is stained by motivating reasoning (Kay et al., 2009; Kunda, 1990), such as positive appraisal of GD.
Challenge

For women who enter typically male-dominated society occupations, they encounter resistance everywhere: from coworkers, supervisors, and even the public. Often the case stands that women get funneled into tasks that are designated to be for women. In 1880s, women’s movements started to gain prevalence, and among them, a movement for women policy was propagated. Women are called “workers” or “operatives” instead of “policewomen”. The first appointed “patrolman” was in 1893, Marie Owens. Her job was different from the men, putting her in a position of court assistance for cases involving women and children. Her work was largely based on her sex as it was more in line with socialized conceptions of femininity. The second appointed was Lola Baldman, in 1905, who was given duties dealing with problems involving girls and women who were threatening positions with poor social conditions. She was not considered as policewomen, but was allowed to perform in the police service. This provides an avenue of exclusion because it does recognize the differences between men and women and their contributions.

Women are primarily the caregivers for their children and the home. This lifestyle is not conducive to policing. Policies rely heavily on shift work, which can be especially difficult for women who are looking after children. The structure of policing that exists purposely oppresses policewomen. The nature of policing celebrates masculine ideas which effectively limit women’s participation. Pregnancy and childcare reaffirm masculine structure. The private sector has surpassed police an agency in implementing policies that are family friendly such as maternity/paternity leave, flex time, and in-house daycare options. The structure of the system creates challenges for women, and in many cases makes it difficult to retain women in policing. Even if a woman is in desk job, the shift work derived from masculine work and familial roles and thus enables gender discrimination through its very structure.

Performance measure

Pervious research has shown that a sizable gender gap among lawyers’ earnings remains even when controlling for the range of individuals characteristics (Wood et al., 1993; Dinovitzer et al., 2009). Gender gaps in earnings have also largely unexplained in others industries (Altonji and Blank, 1999). The raw earnings gap between male and female lawyers in 18 log points. Individuals and firm characteristics explain 50 percent of the initial gap, found the two measures of performance used in the legal profession explain a substantial share—approximately half of the remaining gender gap.

The less proportion of women in the organizations create several difficulties for women, such as isolation, pressure to increase performance because in minority women are more visible (Chanbliss and Uggen, 2000). Besides, tokenism also creates barriers for women in top-level position, as due to minority women face many difficulties to move into senior positions in the organizations, on the other hand, study suggests continue increase in minority and majority increase interaction between minority and majority (Chanbliss and Uggen, 2000).

Feedback

Two way feedbacksystems refer to be planned discussion between both genders in which each person contributes several ideas. This includes the identification of area in which both genders feels that he or she is doing well, and those areas in which improvement is needed. Following this, both genders shares several areas where they feel the other participant is doing well, along with suggestions for the growth. This feedback is non-evaluative and confidential. The time is used for discussion as well as goal setting, and at the conclusion those involved select a time to meet again. Non-evaluative Feedback is feedback that is not
used to determine salary, job placement, or likelihood of future employment. Rather, it is used to identify areas of strength and areas of growth for the participant, and then to recommend actions that can be taken for improvement. Non-evaluative feedback is intended to be an ongoing process, where participants regularly check the growth towards goals.

Nolan and Hoover (2011) define evaluation as “an organizational function designed to make comprehensive judgments concerning teacher performance and competence for the purpose of personnel decision such as tenure and continuing employment”, such as in an annual performance review.

**Instrumentality**

The issue of job satisfaction has initiated with the beginning of scientific management by F.W. Taylor in 1911 when he introduced piece rate system and linked employees` affluence with organization`s prosperity through enhancing employee productivity (Ghafoor, 2012). The early use of scientific management by industries significantly increased productivity because workers were forced to work as a faster way. However workers became bushed and dissatisfied, thus leaving with the new question to answer regarding job satisfaction. But the concept of Job satisfaction was much highlighted when Hawthorne studies were conducted in late 1920s and early 1930s. The Hawthorne studies were firstly designed to study the effect of working condition on workers `productivity`, but the emphasis soon moved to the study of attitude. The finding of these studies provides strong evidence that people work for purpose other than pay which lined the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction. After that Hoppack (1935) began to analyze job satisfaction systematically and identified a range of factors contributing to job satisfaction.

**Stability**

Stability and the relationships between work engagement and job resources can be defined by utilizing the stability and change model (Ormel & Schaufeli, 1991). This model partitions the amount of variance in work engagement and job resources that is accounted for by a stable component (i.e., trait component) and a remaining change component. However, the stability of work engagement seems to depend to some extent on the timeframe within which it is measured. Results of follow-up studies with shorter time-lags, from a few days to a few weeks, have shown that work engagement actually fluctuates within these short periods of time (e.g., Bakker & Bal, 2010; Sonnentag, 2003; Xanthopoulou, Baker, Heuven, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2008). Thus, it seems there are days and weeks during which employees experience stronger work engagement; for example, on some days a supervisor may provide more support and feedback and thus affect employees work engagement. Nevertheless, despite these brief, temporary fluctuations, work engagement seems to return to its usual level over longer periods of time.

Furthermore, the stability coefficients of work engagement do not really decrease over time, although stability is in general expected to do so (e.g., Joreskog, 1970). This indicates that work engagement has a time-invariant component that remains constant even over several time periods (Sonnentag, 2003; Sonnentag et al., 2010). This component could explain why, despite brief and temporary fluctuations, work engagement seems to return to its usual level over a longer period of time (Headey & Wearing, 1989; Ormel & Schaufeli, 1991; Schaufeli et al., 2011).

**Hypothesis**

Figure 1 presents a theoretical framework model of a performance and level of job satisfaction of individuals in organization.
H0: There is no significant prove, gender discrimination has an influence on job satisfaction. Knowing job satisfaction requires a great study of great debates on this topic, one of the major contribution of this topic is Herzberg’s theory of motivation. Herzberg’s theory of motivation and ends with the findings regarding job satisfaction in Public Sector University set up in Pakistan.

The debate on job satisfaction started when Herzberg published his book “The Motivation To Work” (1959). This book was based on the interviews conducted with engineers and accountants. The respondents were asked to narrate a story about the event when they went exceptionally bad or exceptionally good. According to those situations he divided work dimensions in two elements Motivators and Hygiene factors. All those factors those caused exceptionally good feelings were motivators and satisfying factors; achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth.

H1: There is a significant prove, gender discrimination has an influence on job satisfaction.

Herzberg`s theory was severely criticized and pointed out by various researchers, as Vroom(1964) this theory was making people uncovering themselves and making them good by attribution positive events to internal factors and negative events to external events. Even (1964) also criticized his work as he said that this theory was based in limited job range and examined only one aspect of the job attitude, but if critical incident method of interviewing is followed and used findings support and duality (Herzberg`s) theory of job satisfaction.

Various researchers have contributed their research findings from organizational set ups, in order to increase employee job satisfaction and have given various suggestions to boost up the satisfaction. Feinstein (2000) says in order to increase individual’s satisfaction level employees should be given advancement opportunities. Similarly changes in organizational environment such as; pay scales, employees input in policy development, and then the work environment could be made in effort to increase organizational commitment and overall outcome.

H3: Gender discrimination has an impact on stability and job performance of individuals.

Focusing on Pakistani society because gender inequality is particularly pronounced in South Asia. Klasen (1994) and Sen (2001) have highlighted Pakistan as a country where this imbalance is the starkest, with a population sex ration most recently estimated to be 18.05 males for every 100 females (Pakistan census Organization, 1998). In labor market, women aged 20 to 30 with college degree earn on average 28% less their male counterparts. Moreover, gender discrimination in Pakistan appears paradoxical, with women having on the hand prominent political leadership (e.g., Pakistan’s former prime minister Benazir Bhutto was the first women to lead the Islamic state) but facing severe discrimination on their hand: for example, an estimated 13 percent of women are “missing”, the gender gap in literacy is increasing, the rate of violence against women is alarming, and female labor force participation rate rate is 15%, which is low compared to other countries with similar GDP per capita (Klasen and Wink, 2003; Coleman, 2004: Human Right Commission of Pakistan, 2008).

As part of the large body of empirical evidence on gender inequality treatment in Pakistan, there has been some investigation into the relationship between gender discrimination and scio-economic status or social class of the households. The resulting empirical evidence is however rather mixed. In some cases, higher economics status households are found to discriminate less against girls: Rose (1999) finds that landholdings increase the survival of girls relative to bous, and Behrman (1988) and Aderman and Gender (1989) find that households with more income treat boys and girls more equality in terms of allocation of nutrients and
medical care, respectively. However, Miller (1997) and Basu (1989) find that higher socio-economics status households (as measured by caste or income) discrimination more against girls, especially in the northwestern plains of Asia where the society is patrilineal. Similarly, Bhalotra and Cochrane (2010) show that prenatal sex detection and female feticide are greater in relatively wealthy and educated families.

**Methods**

**Sample**

The sample of the study was consisted of 500 employees working in the bank sector in Islamabad and Wahcantt (Pakistan), of which 300 were returned and processed, as 75% response rate was achieved. The survey was completed within three and half months from 16th of the December 2015 to the 20th of the March 2016. Potential respondents were both men and women aged between 20 to more than 35 years.

**Measurement**

This study examines the relationship between gender discrimination and Job satisfaction and Individual attitude of taking discrimination and human resource management practices like hiring, promotion, salary, job performance, satisfaction and stability in Pakistan banking sector by questionnaire. This questionnaire consisted of two parts; the first part consisted demographic characteristics of employees whereas, the second part measured the job satisfaction. Likert scale ranking (5-point likert scale) was used where 5 is the highest degree of agreement and 1 is least degree of agreement. The R was used for the analyses. Regression, correlation and independent sample T-Test are applied for analysis in this study. The survey includes instrument to measure the relationship between gender discrimination and job satisfaction, divide into four parts, Job satisfaction (six items), gender discrimination (three items), where job satisfaction is dependent variable and remaining three are independent variables.

Elementary linkage analysis (McQuitty, 1957b) is a rapid method for the isolation of types, but it results in a first –level classification only. Agreement analysis (McQuitty, 1956), on the other hand, classifies into successive levels such as species, genera, families, etc., but typological studies, which have classified subjects objectively into types on the basis of major patterns of responses, indicate that there are many psychological types and the large sets data are essential to isolate them (McQuitty, 1957a). A lot of work has been done regarding gender discrimination and job satisfaction, Garrido et al. (2005) studied the determinants of job satisfaction of sales managers in Spanish industrial firms. Lam et al. (2001) studied the managerial job satisfaction in Hong Kong`s Chinese restaurants and Oshagbemi (1997) analyzed the job satisfaction levels of teaching staff in universities.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model
Table 1. Level of job satisfaction between male and female employees (independent sample t-test)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Procedure</th>
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<tr>
<td>This study was based on primary data. The questionnaire was self-administered and was distributed among 500 respondents. Before giving the questionnaires, all questions were explained to the participants so they can easily complete the questionnaire and the relevant results. Only questionnaire was given to each respondent. The convenient sampling techniques were followed for data collection.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Results and Discussion</th>
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<td>The main objective of the study is to analyze the impact of gender discrimination on Job performance and satisfaction of both genders. Several test have been utilize for this analysis and summary of result are given in Table 1. After the getting confirmation about the assumption of equal variances (p-value &lt; 2.2e-16), T-Test is used to estimate the impact of gender discrimination on Job satisfaction between male and female workers. The result of T-Test indicates that response of two groups are significantly different (p-value &lt; 2.2e-16).</td>
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| The average value of male respondents are greater than female respondents that is, 5.443918 Which is equal to 5 “very satisfies”. It is indicating that male employees are more satisfied with their jobs as compared to female employees. The result of the study has supported in the literature and represents almost true socioeconomic values and norms which are dominant in Pakistan. Women in Pakistan are faced with the higher discrimination as compare to male. Women considered every job opportunity, available t them, a blessing and are accepted whatever they get. Due to these reasons the results seems to be consistent with the real situation prevailing in Pakistan. The description of social norms and values helps to understand the |

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<th>One Sample t-test</th>
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<tr>
<td>data: data1</td>
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<tr>
<td>t = 31.414, df = 2690, p-value &lt; 2.2e-16</td>
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<tr>
<td>alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>95 percent confidence interval:</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.104108 5.783729</td>
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<tr>
<td>sample estimates:</td>
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<tr>
<td>mean of x</td>
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<td>5.443918</td>
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reasons behind the finding of the study that gender discrimination influences job performance and imbalance the stability of individuals.

The results reported in Table 2 represent the significant correlation among all variables by summarizing the values of correlation coefficient. It is clear from the result at 5% level of significance Gender discrimination is correlated with Job satisfaction with stability value of the correlation of 1. Hiring process is also linked with job satisfaction and statistically has a high level. Almost all the variables is strongly correlated with each other.

The result of regression analysis for job satisfaction and stability are presented in Table 3. The value of R square and the value of F-statistic, which is 2.99 shows that it is greater than the significance level 0.003014187 and results further show that there are some variables which have negative relationship between the dependent and independent variables. At 5% level of significance, the independent coefficient variables are significant. The coefficient of hiring process is 0.001716579 changes the job satisfaction 0.17 percent approximately. Promotion coefficient is -0.000224281 is significant at 5% level and it contributes -0.022 percent approximately. All significant variables having varying degrees have their own empirical importance for job satisfaction, performance and stability.

As the result of GD, the employees satisfaction and performance level is declined and there is less stability in work places. Although, GD is the most important factor affecting job performance and satisfaction among workers.

It is clear from the above results that, there is a significant prove, Gender discrimination has an influences on Job satisfaction, and p-value is greater than significant level. Based on these results, the null hypotheses (Ho) may be rejected and can accept the alternative hypothesis (H1) which states that there is a significant prove, gender discrimination has an influence on job satisfaction. The mean and level of significant values suggests that men employees are more satisfied with their job as compare to women workers.

The results also show that the reaming hypothesis (H3) is also valid and confirm that gender discrimination has an impact on job performance and stability. These findings are consistent with the work of Delavande and zafer (2013).

Table 2. Correlation matrix of Gender discrimination and job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hiring process</th>
<th>promotion</th>
<th>salary</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
<th>challenges</th>
<th>Influence</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
<th>stability</th>
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<tr>
<td>Hiring process</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>promotion</td>
<td>0.134522178</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>salary</td>
<td>-0.136166746</td>
<td>-0.047636759</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.028393048</td>
<td>0.095942983</td>
<td>0.051829611</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>challenges</td>
<td>-0.021729682</td>
<td>0.090778691</td>
<td>0.069814165</td>
<td>0.882118667</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>0.020414478</td>
<td>0.062819248</td>
<td>0.111982872</td>
<td>0.89556263</td>
<td>0.891591439</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>0.007507911</td>
<td>0.037992303</td>
<td>0.076151756</td>
<td>0.892060614</td>
<td>0.886232715</td>
<td>0.955219437</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>stability</td>
<td>-0.037078588</td>
<td>0.029641906</td>
<td>-0.012094407</td>
<td>0.188357113</td>
<td>0.132351255</td>
<td>0.17292879</td>
<td>0.146468118</td>
<td>1</td>
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Table 3. Multi-regression coefficient, standard errors , t-stat and P-value
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<th>Regression Statistics</th>
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<tr>
<td>Multiple R</td>
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<td>R Square</td>
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<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
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<td>Standard Error</td>
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<td>Observations</td>
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<td>df</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
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<th>t Stat</th>
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**Conclusion, Recommendations and Limitations**

These studies aim at measuring the effect of GD on job satisfaction/ performance and predict the stability of individuals. It attempts to measure each variable on the level of job satisfaction. It also examines the difference of level of job satisfaction between male and female employees. Findings of the study indicate that there is a significant prove, gender discrimination has an influence on job satisfaction. The results also depict a significant difference of level of job satisfaction between male and female employees.

The banking sector in Pakistan is facing a huge change for several years. Not only the number of new entrants has increased competition among banks, but economic condition, political instability and energy cries affected on this industry which affected banking sector. As the result, not only their transactions are also declining. Due to this banking sector is experiencing rapid for employers in private banks, but also useful for public banks. Since this study indicates that employees are highly influenced by gender discrimination which causes low job satisfaction. It will further enhance absenteeism and turnover. The empirical analysis of the study suggests that male employees should be prioritized when formulating hiring, promotion and salary. Human resource does not devised on gender discrimination basis include both categories (Male and Female). A future Researchers could be carried out by extending the sample size on multidisplinary industry basis and incorporating other factors (working condition, employees’ safety and security etc.).

This study makes contribution in GD and JS literature by analyzing the variables empirically specific to the banking sector. This study gives importance three variables of gender discrimination and six variables of job satisfaction. Due to insufficiency of empirical literature, it was quite obvious to incorporate the behavior of old employees inform of additional leaves etc. Another limitation of the study is related to sample size selection for analysis. A more comprehensive analysis and generalizability of results demands that sample size should not be specific to financial industry but it should also incorporate multidimensional industrial sample also.
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